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Common Sense

EDITORIAL

IN HIS recent book, *Human Destiny*, Lecomte du Noüy states that common sense alone cannot solve the problems of our times. Too frequently it sacrifices ultimate values for immediate gain and places expediency above right. Perhaps common sense is inadequate to the needs of our times, but there is too little evidence of common sense in the claims made by statesmen and observers.

It is possible, however, that shortsightedness rather than the inadequacy of common sense is responsible for limitations in our thinking. Perhaps some of our ties with tradition should be broken to enable us to adjust to the new world that has been created during the span of a single life. In 1775, Thomas Paine startled our forebears by suggesting that "Common Sense" dictated separation from Great Britain. In 1947,

does not common sense dictate an abandonment of the parochialism that divides us into alien and antagonistic groups? If, in 1775, common sense suggested separation from Great Britain, the same common sense in 1947 suggests a pooling of interests and a union of all governments.

Such proposals for united action cause some persons to point to the differences among us and to the barriers dividing us. Most of the obstructions separating us are man-made; for we have overcome nature's barriers of time and distance. The remaining obstacles to united action have been created by men and, like all man-made creations, can be destroyed. We may stress the differences of race, nationality, and creed and point to the impossibility of bridging the chasm dividing us. It is possible, however, to point to areas where these dividing influences have been bridged.

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Today all that man has accomplished is threatened by his greatest and most terrible creation. Man has released a force which chal-

lenges him to overcome those human frailties that he has nurtured so carefully through the centuries. There are individuals who deny the ability of men to meet this challenge. They point to the histories of mankind and focus their magnifying glass upon wars and military conquests. They ignore the great and inexplicable steps in the evolution of man. Their realism is the realism of despair and the denial of spiritual forces. Although written history may suggest the inevitability of wars, the full story of man's development also suggests his ability to adapt himself to new conditions in order to survive.

Many persons will say that hope for a peaceful adaptation to new conditions is a vain one or that it is "Pollyanna stuff." Possibly these charges are well founded, but can we accept another alternative and still retain hope for the future? Are there not times of danger and disaster when common sense and high idealism must coincide? In such a moment, the survival of the group is essential to the survival of the individual. Therefore, common sense dictates the abandonment of shortsighted and narrow thinking and the adoption of a mode of action requiring full co-operation in the attainment of a common goal. At such times, are not common sense and high idealism one and the

same thing? If we must adopt high ideals in order to survive, how can we distinguish between idealism and common sense? Are we not now living in the midst of threatened disaster? Do we recognize the urgency of the situation?

The junior colleges are vitally concerned with these questions and their answers. They are the people's colleges and, as such, are strategically located to serve the needs of the people. This strength is also their weakness. They are so close to the people that they may fail to recognize ultimate needs because they are intent upon the immediate requirements of their constituency. They may train technicians who would be as willing to serve a dictator as to cultivate a sound democracy. Training of this type is not enough; indeed, it may lead to our own destruction. The junior colleges, if they are to serve their people well, must assume responsibility for creating an awareness of our needs and an understanding of our problems. They must translate the ideals of democracy and of Christianity into reality. They must cultivate faith in our future, even as they develop, through democratic processes within the college, an ability to work together for a common goal—survival in a decent world.

EUGENE S. FARLEY

Testing for Guidance and Placement in the Junior College

MAX D. ENGELHART

ALL junior colleges are committed to meeting the varied needs of greatly augmented student populations. Many students now enrol in these institutions who, under more normal conditions, would immediately enter four-year colleges or universities. As in the past, numerous students continue to register with definite ideas of transferring ultimately to some higher institution. For both of these groups of students the junior college is preparatory, although for many of them it should be, and actually is, terminal.

A number of junior colleges are developing terminal curriculums on the assumption that such instruction will best meet the needs of a large proportion of their students. Unfortunately, however, almost all entering junior-college students exhibit little enthusiasm for terminal courses if enrolment in them means

a limiting of their ambitions. One of the major purposes of testing in the junior college is to provide the data needed in counseling which will result in selection by students of courses or curriculums compatible with their abilities and aptitudes.

There are no significant differences in the objectives of junior-college work and those of higher education for large numbers of junior-college students. For able and ambitious students the junior college must continue to be a preparatory institution. The cultural and pre-professional courses which contemplate four or more years beyond high-school graduation must remain in the junior-college program. The scope of junior-college objectives must be widened, however, to include the terminal-general and the terminal-vocational curriculums. On the other hand, the junior college cannot become an exclusively terminal institution. In most comparisons of psychological-test data pertaining to entrants of junior colleges and entrants of four-year institutions, the signifi-

This paper was written for the Committee on Student Personnel Problems by MAX D. ENGELHART, director of examinations of Chicago City Junior College.

cant characteristic of the data is the overlapping of the distributions. In general, slightly more than 60 per cent of junior-college entrants exceed the twenty-fifth percentile of four-year college and university entrants.

The fact that the junior college is characterized by a heterogeneous student population and, hence, must be both a preparatory and a terminal institution creates many problems of administration and instruction. Unless administrators and instructors are aware of the range of individual differences within the junior-college student body and are ready to accept the necessity of making adequate provision for these differences, the junior college is not likely to fulfil its function of effective education for *all* its students. Only by means of well-planned and conducted testing programs can the needs of each student be ascertained.

While many of the ideas expressed in later paragraphs may not be novel to experienced junior-college personnel workers, it seemed desirable to include them so that the discussion may prove most helpful to persons less familiar with testing programs.

Testing at Entrance

Some of the data needed in guidance and placement can be collected by means of tests administered at the time of admission, but

the collection of data should not be restricted to such testing. The whole program of measurement in the junior college should contribute to effective guidance. Course marks should be not only indices of attainment of course objectives but also predictors of success in advanced instruction whether in the junior college or in the higher institution. In terminal-vocational courses the marks should be effective predictors of vocational success as well. In addition to the testing at entrance, the abilities, aptitudes, and interests of students should be systematically evaluated throughout the junior-college years. All available data should be employed in self-directive counseling so that students will make intelligent choices with respect to further education. Some students will modify their plans for higher education to plans for terminal education more in harmony with their abilities. Other students may raise the level of their ambitions when superior aptitudes are revealed. Acceleration of the trend in higher institutions toward admission on the basis of aptitude testing, rather than on the basis of accumulations of credits in certain prescribed courses, should greatly simplify the junior-college problem of terminal education. If a superior junior-college student can transfer to a higher institution regardless of his pattern of junior-college courses, terminal

curriculums will become increasingly popular and increasingly likely to divert the less able students from attempts to enter a higher institution.

In establishing a testing program, the junior-college administrator should delegate responsibility for the program to some qualified member of the staff. This person may be the director of counseling, a dean, an assistant dean, the registrar, or some instructor who has the necessary background of training and experience. Some one person should be responsible, and he should be assisted by a group of instructors trained in the giving of tests and in counseling on the basis of test data. Adequate clerical help should be provided, when needed, for scoring, tabulating, and recording test results. If the junior college is large, an electric scoring machine is almost indispensable.

In the initiation of a testing program, it is desirable to begin with a minimum of testing. No more tests should be given than can be scored, recorded, and interpreted. New tests can be added as the testing staff acquires skill in handling the program and as new demands for testing arise. Changing from one test to another should be avoided as much as possible since counselors best interpret the results of tests with which many data have previously been collected within

the institution. When possible, new tests should be given a trial before becoming permanent additions to the program.

All the data pertaining to each student should be preserved on an individual cumulative-record card or in an individual file folder. The card or the folder and its contents should always be immediately available for use in counseling. While the data pertaining to individual students should be recorded in the individual records of the students, summaries of the data should always be made. Such summaries are useful, not only to counselors in interpreting the scores of individual students, but also to the junior-college administrators and instructors in directing instruction.

In addition to providing some of the data needed in counseling during the junior-college years, the data obtained on the tests administered at the time of entrance may also be used in pre-registration counseling with respect to the initial selection of courses and curriculums. Test data collected at this time may also serve other and related purposes. These purposes include, for example, placement in terms of proficiency in the regular first semester of English composition or in a remedial course in the same field. Placement in foreign languages, mathematics, science, engineering drawing, and in business courses may also be deter-

mined by means of test data obtained prior to registration. Test data are also useful in determining the number of courses that students may be permitted to carry. Students in need of remedial instruction in reading may be identified by means of a reading test administered prior to registration. Certain tests may be taken on entrance in order to secure advanced standing in various fields. Finally, pre-registration testing is the means of solving the problems of admission of non-high-school graduates.

Psychological Examinations

The pre-registration testing should include certain tests for all entering students and other tests which are optional. Probably the most useful test to be taken by all students is a psychological examination. The most widely used test of this kind is the American Council on Education Psychological Examination for College Freshmen. This test requires approximately an hour and twenty minutes to give. It can be scored rapidly by means of the electric scoring machine or by means of stencils where hand scoring must be used. The national norms expressed as percentile ranks are useful in comparing the general ability of each entering student with students entering four-year colleges and universities or entering other junior colleges. The former comparison is most useful as one

means of differentiating between students most likely to profit from preparatory or from terminal instruction, though this differentiation should certainly be tentative.

The test yields two part scores, the linguistic and the quantitative. These *L* and *Q* scores are of some value in counseling with respect to selection of curriculums. For example, the *Q* score may serve as an index of prospective success in scientific or engineering curriculums requiring mathematical or quantitative abilities. The student who attains a high linguistic score and a relatively lower quantitative score may be guided into curriculums where facility with the use of language is an asset.

It should be mentioned again that too much reliance should not be placed on the evidence supplied by a single test. Consideration should also be given to other data, including high-school record. While most colleges use the American Council on Education Psychological Examination, other widely used mental tests for college students include the Ohio Psychological Examination; the Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability; the Otis Group Intelligence Scale, or the Otis Quick-scoring Mental Ability Test; the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability; and the California Test of Mental Maturity. The scores on a psychological examination in conjunction with high-school

record are effective means of determining the optimum course load of each student. The critical scores that should be set must be determined through experience in using the test and in relation to local scholastic standards.

Tests in English

In addition to a psychological examination, all entering students may be given an English proficiency or placement test. A number of colleges employ the Cooperative English Test A: Mechanics of Expression. Other possibilities include the Purdue Placement Test in English and the United States Armed Forces Institute Test of General Educational Development, Test 1, Correctness and Effectiveness of Expression. Form B of the latter test may also be obtained from the Cooperative Test Service. Another possibility is to use the linguistic scores of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination for placement purposes in English.

It is difficult to set an appropriate critical score on a placement test the first time the test is used. One possibility is to tally the scores, study the distribution, and then select a score which will split the distribution in such a way that the proportion of lower scores approximates the proportion of entering students that has been found by the English instructors, through

past experience, to be most in need of remedial instruction. The critical score may be raised or lowered in later semesters, but there should always be provision for transfers from the regular to the remedial course, or vice versa, as instructors are able to make more complete evaluations of writing skills. Scores on the English placement test should be reported to the English instructors for whatever diagnostic value the scores may have, but the instructors should be cautioned not to be unduly influenced by such scores in making their own evaluations of student ability. While placement scores should correlate with final marks, they should not be factors in determining such marks.

Reading Tests

It is recommended that a reading test be administered to all entering students, since reading ability is so important a factor in academic achievement. The scores on a reading test are useful in identifying students who need remedial-reading instruction. They may also be used as one of the criteria in the determination of the optimum number of courses that a student should carry. It is possible that low reading scores are one of the effective indicators of the students most likely to profit from less academic terminal curriculums. The reading tests which may be considered for

use include the Cooperative English Test, C2: Reading Comprehension (Upper Level); the Iowa Silent Reading Tests, Advanced Test; the Minnesota Reading Examination for College Students; and the Minnesota Speed of Reading Test for College Students. The Cooperative test is unique in that one of its two comprehension scores is independent of rate of reading. Students whose level of comprehension is satisfactory but who read too slowly can be identified. Such students should receive the type of remedial instruction which will increase their rates of reading.

Interest Inventories

Interest and adjustment inventories may conveniently be administered to all students during pre-registration testing, although such instruments cannot usually be scored and interpreted in advance of registration. Some junior colleges make a practice of administering these tests to first-semester students in orientation courses. The inventories commonly given include the Kuder Preference Record, the Bell Adjustment Inventory, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Men, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for Women, the Cleetson Vocational Interest Inventory, the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory.

Obtaining interest or adjustment data by means of such inventories

is desirable, but the data should be interpreted with caution. The Kuder Preference Record may disclose the real interests of students, but interests, while important, should not be confused with abilities. The counselor must evaluate interest data in relation to data pertaining to abilities and aptitudes.

The scores obtained from adjustment or personality inventories are of uncertain validity. They are useful, however, in identifying some of the students who are likely to present problems of adjustment. In some cases, understanding and sympathetic counseling may prove adequate to bring about adjustment, but, in other cases, the services of a clinical psychologist or even of a psychiatrist may be required. The typical junior-college counselor is acting most wisely when he realizes that what he can accomplish with respect to serious problems of maladjustment is limited and that a specialist is needed. Although such cases are infrequent, all counselors should be alert to their possible occurrence.

Other Placement Tests

Prior to registration, students may be given opportunities to take other tests, if they wish to do so, for placement purposes in the languages, in mathematics, in the sciences, and in other fields. Suitable tests may be selected from those published by the Cooperative Test

Service or by other test publishers, or they may be constructed by instructors in the fields concerned. If the tests selected are college-level tests, credit may be granted for satisfactory achievements and the students advised to register for advanced rather than introductory courses. The college-level United States Armed Forces Institute Tests of General Educational Development and the college-level subject tests prepared by the examinations staff of the Institute are particularly appropriate, since critical scores have been established for these tests by the American Council on Education. These tests may also be obtained from the Cooperative Test Service.

The entire battery of high-school-level tests of General Educational Development may be used to evaluate the abilities of non-high-school graduates for admission to the junior college. These tests may be given to such applicants prior to registration, where such applicants have not previously taken them under the auspices of some other agency. The high-school records of such entrants should be evaluated with care in order to provide for any deficiencies in prerequisite instruction.

Administering the Program and Using Results

Pre-registration testing should be scheduled sufficiently in advance of registration to permit adequate

time for scoring and recording of the data. There should also be adequate time for counseling on the basis of the data. A week spent in testing, scoring, recording, and counseling is not an unwarranted loss of instructional time if it means effective guidance and placement of entrants. It is possible to administer the psychological test, an English placement test, and a reading test in one morning and have the data available for counseling the next day. The afternoon of the first day of testing may be given to optional placement tests, and, since the numbers taking these tests are usually small, results may also be reported to counselors for use the next day. Efficient organization, availability of a scoring machine or numerous trained scorers, and clerical help proficient in the recording of data will make this program possible. While it is most desirable to record all the data pertaining to each entrant on an individual record card, lists of names and scores are frequently but less conveniently used.

After the students have entered the junior college, the pre-registration test data may receive further use in counseling. A well-organized program of guidance will involve the use of additional tests and other instruments in solving problems of educational and vocational choices and of adjustment. Some of the testing may be done in orientation classes, and the data may be inter-

puted as part of the instruction in such classes. Other testing may be done as a phase of the counseling procedure. One of the best points of departure for suggesting that a student take additional tests arises when the student indicates an interest in some vocational or academic field and, at the same time, expresses some uncertainty concerning his aptitude for the field. Definite efforts should be made to build up a library of aptitude tests in a variety of fields for use by counselors as the need arises.

The Wrenn Study Habits Inventory yields data useful to counselors in helping students who need to develop effective habits of study. The Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale may be administered by counselors experienced in giving individual intelligence tests. It can be used to retest students whose low scores on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination may result from inferior verbal ability, language handicap, slow reading, or other factors.

Students nearing completion of their junior-college years may be tested in various ways to secure data useful in the further identification of those who should be urged to continue their education in the university or professional school. The junior college may participate in the College Sophomore Testing Program, the College Chemistry

Testing Program, or the program of Medical Aptitude Tests. The first two programs named are administered by the Cooperative Test Service, while the third is conducted by the Graduate Record Office. Another means of obtaining data worthy of such use is to institute a local program of improved course measurements.

In some cases this will involve the establishment in the junior college of a department of examinations, which will have responsibility for the construction and administration of tests in all the more important or required courses. In the production of tests and examinations, exercises are prepared and evaluated for use by course instructors with the technical assistance of one or more examiners or test technicians. If the establishment of such a department is impractical, it is always possible to promote better achievement testing. A junior-college administrator can encourage test production by indicating that this activity is an essential part of instruction. Faculty committees may be set up in various fields with responsibilities for test construction. The author knows of no better way of securing more adequate definition of curriculum objectives than teacher participation in programs of evaluation and measurement. Improvement of instruction is another outcome.

Helpful Literature

The junior-college administrator and the persons interested in developing testing programs will find much helpful information in such journals as *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, and the *Journal of Educational Research*. The first-named journal is particularly valuable, since it contains articles both on testing and on the use of test data in counseling. Information with respect to available published tests may be found in the *Mental Measurements Yearbook*, edited and published by Oscar Buros, of Rutgers University. A new edition of this important reference book is now in preparation. Information with respect to tests may also be obtained from the catalogues of test publishers, including the Cooperative Test Service, the World Book Company,

the Bureau of Educational Research and Service of the University of Iowa, the California Test Bureau of Los Angeles, the Public School Publishing Company of Bloomington, Illinois, and the Educational Test Bureau of Minneapolis. The junior-college library should contain several of the better textbooks on educational and psychological measurements.

The importance of developing a well-planned and carefully conducted testing program cannot be exaggerated. Few procedures can make so significant a contribution to the effective functioning of a junior college as do testing which promotes placement of students in courses and curriculums appropriate to their abilities and aptitudes, adaptation of instruction to individual needs, and adjustment of students to junior-college life.

Opportunities for Community Service

HAROLD R. BOTTRELL

THIS is the first in a series of articles presenting findings and recommendations of an investigation of community service in junior colleges. They are offered as a practical, specific resource for the development and improvement of community-service programs.

"Community service" is defined here as responsible, directed participation by students in the services and activities of local agencies, organizations, and groups, involving co-operative arrangements between the college and the community, organized services in the form of activities and projects, and supervision of student participation. As used here, a "service opportunity" exists when there are arrangements between the college and the community through which

responsible, directed participation in some service or activity of a local community agency, organization, or group is made available to students. A "service need" is defined as a recognized or expressed opportunity for student participation and assistance brought forward by, or initiating in, the community. Thus "service activities" are the specific activities undertaken by the college and engaged in by students to satisfy opportunities and needs for service to the local community. "Service projects" develop because services engaged in by numbers of students tend to take on the form of organized group activities, to extend over relatively long periods of time, and to acquire supervision by college staff.¹

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Values of Community Service

The responses of 119 sponsors and supervisors in 76 junior colleges with reference to the values of community service may be sum-

¹ Harold R. Bottrell, "Social Cement for Group Unity," *Educational Leadership*, IV (February, 1947), 298-303. This article deals with group projects and community service.

marized in the following statements:

1. Student participation in service to the community is valuable in the general education of students and should be further encouraged.

2. Students enjoy such participation in the community and the personal and social satisfactions associated with it.

3. Participation in community service affords an effective medium for guidance.

4. Participating students show social growth, increased community understanding, and more responsible citizenship.

5. Community service provides realistic student experience through a planned approach to community participation and learning to do by doing.

6. Service activities and student participation in them reduces isolation of the college and withdrawal by the community by acquainting the community with the resources and services of the college and the potentialities of youth as community workers.

At the same time, these respondents pointed out that provisions for student time and for faculty supervision are inadequate; that lack of trained and interested personnel in the college and the community is a present handicap; and, finally, that attention must be given any conditions, problems, and limitations which may be involved in the college-community situation. Thus sponsors and supervisors emphasized that community service must be responsibly done, and they stressed the need for adequate supervisory leadership.

Typical Community-Service Activities

The community-service activities reported here list briefly what, typically, is done by students. The activities in each group appear in the order of decreasing frequency of mention by the sponsors and supervisors. The lists are typical and are suggestive of used and available opportunities to serve the community, but they are not exhaustive.

1. Leadership in youth groups

a) Individual activities

- (1) Girl Scouts
- (2) Boy Scouts
- (3) Y.M.C.A. groups
- (4) Y.W.C.A. groups
- (5) Camp Fire Girls
- (6) Girl Reserves
- (7) 4-H clubs
- (8) Police clubs
- (9) Youth center work

b) Group activities

- (1) Hi-Y

Services to youth groups are performed on an individual basis, the probability being that the individual in most instances has found his own opportunity for service and has experienced relatively little relation between this activity and his college program.

2. Assistance in welfare and social agencies

a) Individual activities

- (1) Church welfare bureau
- (2) Service in community house
- (3) Personal visits to homes of needy families

b) Group activities

- (1) Thanksgiving drive for social agencies

- (2) Carnival to raise funds for underprivileged camp
- (3) Gifts for children's service bureau
- (4) Welfare projects at Christmas time
- (5) Thanksgiving parties for underprivileged
- (6) Thanksgiving visits and gifts of necessities
- (7) Helping community center by sponsoring parties for underprivileged children
- (8) Assisting welfare agencies

The group activities reported are occasional, short-term affairs that have relatively indirect relation to the community. In type, most of them are not in keeping with modern concepts of social service, which support the practice of either regularly planned assistance through agencies or contributions to the agency for administration and distribution to the people in the community which it serves as the responsible public or private agency.

3. Leadership in church and religious organizations

- a) Individual activities
 - (1) Sunday school teaching
 - (2) Church musical organizations
 - (3) Recreational activities
 - (4) Church work
 - (5) Young peoples' organizations
- b) Group activities
 - (1) "Youth caravans"
 - (2) Mission Sunday schools
 - (3) Conducting revivals
 - (4) Mission jail services
 - (5) Church youth work

Generally this is an area that the college, unless it be strongly denominational, concerns itself about only indirectly. The group activities reported are, for the most part,

extra-church in nature. Absent are activities indicating responsible participation by, and acceptance of, students in the adult service activities and community functions of church and religious organizations.

4. Recreational leadership

- a) Individual activities
 - (1) Playground leaders or supervisors
 - (2) Camp counselors
 - (3) Recreational aides in settlements
 - (4) Instructors in occupational handicrafts in hospitals
- b) Group activities
 - (1) Assisting in community recreation program
 - (2) Hospital recreation
 - (3) Supervising playgrounds
 - (4) Building and supervising a skating-pond

The field of recreational leadership is one in which the demand exceeds the supply. Most of the activities reported have to do with playgrounds and, as in youth-group leadership, are predominantly individual activities. Effective leadership in recreational activities involves considerable training and a relatively high level of skills. The designation "recreational aide" suggests specific preparation for community service.

5. Child-care services

- a) Individual activities
 - (1) Child-care aides
 - (2) Aides in preschool clinics
 - (3) Home service for handicapped children
 - (4) Child-care aides at home for underprivileged children
 - (5) Work in nursery and kindergarten schools

- (6) Substitute teaching in local nursery schools
- b) Group activities
 - (1) Conducting nursery-school program
 - (2) Work in day nurseries

The range of opportunities in child-care services is suggested in the list of individual activities, several of which are also adaptable to group activity. These activities afford opportunities of real vocational and social significance, provided trained supervision is available. "Child-care aide" is a useful and descriptive concept, suggesting the provision of qualified services.

- 6. Red Cross services
 - a) Individual activities
 - (1) Red Cross work—general
 - (2) Red Cross production work
 - (3) Nurse's aide
 - (4) Blood bank, blood donors
 - (5) Volunteer office-work
 - (6) Training and serving as canteen aides
 - (7) Assisting in fund-raising campaign
 - (8) Membership
 - b) Group activities
 - (1) Red Cross production work
 - (2) Red Cross canteen
 - (3) Fund-raising campaigns
 - (4) Nurse's aide in local hospital
 - (5) College Unit
 - (6) First-aid classes
 - (7) American Women's Voluntary Services

Both individual and group participation in Red Cross activities was found to be relatively extensive, as was expected at the time of the investigation. However, for the few activities that operated at the College Unit and nurse's aide levels, there were many that operated

at the relatively casual, "putting-in-time-on-stuff" level. Further, many of the activities were carried on on the campus and involved relatively little direct co-operation with community people.

- 7. Tours and excursions
 - a) Group activities
 - (1) Tours to social and welfare agencies
 - (2) Tours to settlement house, orphanage, slum-clearance housing project
 - (3) Tours and interviews

Very few tours and excursions were reported, and those visited the usual places. The one instance in which planned interviews were combined with tours indicates more direct student participation.

- 8. Community surveys and field study
 - a) Individual activities
 - (1) Survey of recreation needs
 - (2) Survey of population trends
 - (3) Survey of juvenile correctional agencies
 - (4) Church-school census
 - (5) Interviewing members of the community and investigating work of community agencies
 - b) Group activities
 - (1) Survey of housing conditions
 - (2) Survey of music in the community
 - (3) Religious census
 - (4) Surveys for local groups and organizations
 - (5) Surveys for Committee for Economic Development
 - (6) Community surveys
 - (7) Community study
 - (8) Field trips for home and at-work visitation
 - (9) Field trips

Various kinds of surveys were revealed, both as individual and as group activities. Obviously this area and Area 7 are those best

adapted to group activity. As was expected, most of the activities reported in these two areas tend to have a classroom base and to be directed by the instructor. Of particular interest are the surveys undertaken for, and in co-operation with, community groups in which the findings have high likelihood of immediate use and application.

9. Projects in co-operation with the community

a) Individual activities

- (1) Hospital aides
- (2) Selling war bonds and stamps
- (3) Hostesses at United Service Organizations
- (4) Music for community clubs, organizations, groups
- (5) Talks for community clubs, organizations, groups
- (6) Volunteer secretarial work in hospital
- (7) Clerical work for fund-raising campaigns
- (8) Membership in community musical organizations
- (9) Publicity on community drives in college publications

b) Group activities

- (1) Music and entertainment for community clubs and organizations
- (2) War-bond drives
- (3) Parties and entertainment for servicemen
- (4) Entertainment and visitation in hospitals
- (5) Paper, clothing, and salvage drives
- (6) Talks, forums, discussions for community groups, clubs, and organizations
- (7) Community and war-chest drives
- (8) Helping in harvests at critical times
- (9) Price-checking with Office of Price Administration
- (10) Work with League of Women Voters
- (11) Publishing a community newspaper

Obviously there is great range and variety in the activities reported as projects in co-operation with community groups and organizations. Some activities appear much more significant than others. Several of the individual activities are more in the nature of exhibition and practice than participation in community service. Much the same is true for several of the group activities, particularly the largest one, community entertainment. The activities related to servicemen may be viewed as temporary, as is true also of bond drives and similar activities. Perhaps the more significant activities, in the long run, are those reported least frequently—those at the ends of the lists. Publishing a community newspaper, for example, has enormous possibilities and values for all concerned as a co-operative community project. Examination of the activities listed as projects in co-operation with the local community shows the great majority of them to be indirect in their relationships with the community. In most instances they appear to involve working for, rather than with, the community. For that matter, they appear also to have relatively indirect relation to the educational program of the junior college.

The 119 sponsors and supervisors co-operating in the study of student participation in services to the community provided a rather extensive catalogue of community-

service activities now engaged in by students in 76 junior colleges. It may be emphasized that the lists present only service activities collected from this one source. To peruse them is to recognize that there are more service opportunities at hand in college communities and to recognize, further, that there are instances in which the service and educative possibilities of many opportunities and activities are not as yet fully explored and developed. For example, many individual activities could be developed as group activities. Also, many service activities have general rather than specific relationships with the community and appear to lack the basic social processes and patterns of genuine college-community co-operation. Further, there appears to be a tendency for activities, though reported as community activities, to operate primarily on the campus. These characteristics are due, in large part, to the facts that (1) student participation tends to be volunteer participation; (2) direction and supervision tend to be loosely organized; and, (3) co-operative patterns, where present, tend to be casual and informal.

Location of Service Opportunities

Careful search by colleges for service opportunities was not found characteristic. Rather, it was discovered that more opportunities are brought to the college by the

community than are initiated through college efforts to locate opportunities. Therefore location of service opportunities by the college is an important factor in the development and improvement of community-service programs.

When consideration is given to possible service activities and projects that may be undertaken, two general approaches are commonly used: (1) a study or survey of the community, out of which possible services are formulated and an attempt is made to enlist community co-operation in getting them set up and under way; (2) a list or catalogue of service activities and projects that have been used elsewhere and an effort to introduce these and carry them on in a given situation. The first approach is preferable, supplemented by the second, for the former deals more fundamentally with the social processes through which experience is directly obtained and through which the results are related to, and oriented in terms of, a known situation.

The following suggestions are made to indicate avenues that may be utilized by colleges in locating opportunities for student services to the community.

1. Establish a directory of community agencies, institutions, organizations, and groups, showing purposes, personnel, projects, and community-serving activities.
2. Conduct community or other sur-

veys and studies to identify needs, problems, and resources.

3. Study the off-campus and out-of-school activities and experiences of students for the purpose of relating the college program with community living.

4. Examine the college program for areas in which laboratory experiences in the community can be developed and utilized.

5. Develop working relationships with such community co-ordinating bodies as a community co-ordinating council, council of social agencies, federation of civic organizations, and council of youth-serving agencies.

Thus the catalogue of typical available opportunities for student participation in services to the local community may be extended. It is desirable for students and community people to participate actively and responsibly in the research and study carried on and in the ensuing planning. Explorations such as these not only locate opportunities for student service but also nurture the kinds of relations between the college and the community that provide a favorable environment for community service on the part of students.

Criteria for Selection of Community-Service Activities

Not all opportunities for student services that are located by the college or offered by the community are of equal value. As a basis for discriminative selection, the fol-

lowing criteria of an acceptable service activity or project are offered.

1. The service activity should be recognized by the college as an experience of educative value.

2. It should be an activity having genuine interest for students.

3. It should be accepted as an activity having social significance or as being an overt contribution to community welfare.

4. It should be recognized by the community as something that youth can do.

5. The service activity should be something that the community is not now doing, or is not prepared to do, or needs assistance to do adequately.

6. It should be an activity that can be accomplished with the resources and skills available (or for which resources can be acquired and skills developed).

7. It should be an activity which is amenable to group-work procedures and co-operative project effort.

8. The service activity should be something that can be done with acceptable work and service standards.

9. It should be an activity for which adequate direction and supervision can be provided.

10. It should be an activity that makes for college-community co-operation and co-ordination in planning and operation.

11. The service activity should be free from exploitation of the college, the community, or students.

Evidence has been presented to show that there are service opportunities available and more to be found. Application of the suggested

criteria will aid the college in selecting those opportunities affording educative experience for students and genuine service to the community.

Conclusion

Student participation in the community depends on opportunities for such experience. The values of community-service participation have been indicated, and a considerable list of opportunities now in use has been presented, along with

suggested criteria for careful selection of service activities. Suggestions have also been made regarding means of locating service opportunities and rendering a community service in the process. Obviously it is desirable that student experience in the community have functional organization and adequate supervision. Subsequent articles will deal with these essential elements of an effective community-service program.

An Effective Public-Relations Program

VERGIL S. FOGDALL

AN old saying has it, "What is everybody's business is usually nobody's business," and this is as true today as it was centuries ago. Today the modern high schools, the mushrooming junior colleges, and countless small colleges are facing the problem of maintaining effective public-relations programs. As the public becomes sporadically inconsistent on directing the schools, American education can profit by carefully explaining its program through the printed and the spoken word. Since administrators are becoming more and more swamped by the pressures of their managerial duties, the responsibility for the public-relations program should be assigned to a particular individual in a college, school, or school system.

Specialist Needed

The co-ordinator of the entire public-relations system should be a director of publications, who is directly in line below the adminis-

trative head of the school. Some authorities suggest that the title "director of interpretation" or some other similar title is to be preferred, but this writer is of the opinion that such a title is entirely too arousing to be advisable. It might be reasonably contended that the position should bear an even more common name, such as "assistant principal," "dean of the junior college," or "assistant to the superintendent."

The director of publications should carry a class schedule in a standard subject field of a half-load or less, so that he will have ample time and emotional energy for his public-relations job. The director must be a man (or a woman) with a flair for promotion that is energetic but at the same time dignified. He should have undergraduate and graduate work in English, history, the natural sciences, and the social sciences, as well as training in business and, specifically, in the science of advertising, in practical journalism, social psychology, and propaganda. His acquaintanceship with the principles and underlying philosophy of modern educational practices should be broad. He

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should be close to the superintendent and the principal, the three comprising the inner circle on school publicity.

Using Student Journalists

Working with the director of publications should be a student group to do the "leg work" in collecting the news on every phase of activity within the school. Either in an extra-curriculum program (in the small school) or on a curricular basis (in the large school's journalism courses), these students should cover the campus and write up their stories in accord with accepted principles of journalism. If picked for journalism training in their early years of high school, these persons develop a remarkable degree of competency. They gradually learn which types of news items are best adapted to news stories, to short and long features, to editorials, or to special columns, as is testified by the long list of all-American newspapers at the University of Minnesota and medalists at Columbia University. It is well to remember that, for every student who reads the school newspaper, there are at least two adults at home who study its contents, probably reading the paper more critically than do the students themselves.

The student reporter will gain even greater experience if the faculty adviser institutes a parallel

publicity organization. Let the reporter write his story for the school paper, and, in the case of significant items, let him write a second story to be used in neighborhood daily newspapers. With only a little additional effort, the adviser can use one of its most capable, advanced journalism students as the director of a school news bureau. Through the regular newspaper staff the reporter's first story appears in the school newspaper; through the auxiliary staff the second story will go to be printed in the daily papers. With due regard for good journalism practice, these stories can be so timed that the daily paper will neither scoop the school publication nor appear to be following too slowly in its wake in releasing stories about the school activities.

Play These Angles

Stories which are released will profit if they are directed, specifically or somewhat subtly, to one or more of the following "angles": (1) publicize desirable personalities in the student body, holding them up as models to be followed; (2) turn the spotlight on faculty personalities so that members of the community will recognize them as specialists in their fields; (3) acquaint taxpayers with policies which show that school funds are being spent wisely; (4) advertise the school among prospective stu-

dents who might enrol at a future date; (5) advance immediate goals, such as advertising football or basketball games, publicizing plays and other entertainments, campaigning for new buildings, etc. With finesse, the public-relations director can guide the student journalists in emphasizing these thoughts.

Other Forms of Publicity

If the public-relations adviser has a knack for designing other items of publicity, he can serve the school in many valuable ways. Most of the miscellaneous public-relations material will be designed and written by the director of publications or by students working directly with him. These may include the following: desk blotters to be distributed at the beginning of the fall term, carrying the seal of the college and the football schedule of the high school and the junior college; programs for plays, concerts, operettas, etc.; circulars advertising open house, adult institutes, and other general programs; other items which it may be deemed advisable to print and distribute.

The publication of the annual, which affects the public-relations program for only a few days at the time it is distributed, should be delegated to a faculty adviser who will work with a small group of advanced journalists experienced in the field of practical journalism.

Preferably, all the Senior journalists will work on the school paper during the first six weeks of the year and will be divided for work on the two publications, the paper and the yearbook, when the beginning journalists are sufficiently well advanced to assume the duties of "covering beats" and writing the minor news stories.

If the superintendent or the principal desires other forms of public contact, the director of publications can move into action. There are few annual reports, for example, which could not be improved by the suggestions of the director. Much of the work of producing the teachers' directory could be delegated to the public-relations adviser. The teachers' handbook, designed by the principal to help in orienting new teachers and to serve as a ready reference for all teachers, could be turned over to the director of publications for typography layout and cover design, and the chances are that it would thus be much improved. A students' handbook could be written by a student staff under the direction of the principal or the director, especially during the last month of the school year, when the beginning journalists are undertaking the publication of the paper without the aid of the advanced journalists. If it is desired, a magazine could be published by the advanced journalists, working with an English teacher

who is interested in the project. The director could help on page layout and on other matters concerned with printing techniques.

Few persons have the ability to write something for another to read and then to analyze it critically for needed corrections. Often a report or a mimeographed letter of the principal or the superintendent could be improved if it were revised by the public-relations man. The meaning of the paper would not be changed; the chief purpose of the director is to help the administrator say what he wants to say in such a way that the public will read it in only one way.

In order to facilitate the public-relations program, the school board should, at the first opportune moment, purchase a complete job-printing plant. New equipment is to be preferred, but a more economical plan is to buy the complete plant of a shop which has gone out of business or to purchase other used equipment. A union printer could be hired as a Smith-Hughes teacher of printing, and for his out-of-class time he should be paid union wages for the work of publishing the high-school or junior-college paper, and the junior high school or other papers on alternate weeks. This plan will be found to be much less expensive and the results will be more satisfying than the plan of having all printed matter handled by a commercial shop.

Defects in Present Programs

A decade and a half of contact with public-relations programs of educational institutions leads this writer to mention four especially glaring weaknesses today: (1) The task is carried as an overload by one of the faculty members. (2) Administrators, wishing to save tax funds, think the program can be operated without a budget. (3) The program is too highly centralized. (4) Persons are not adequately trained for the assignment.

In some schools the principal picks a faculty member to serve as adviser for the paper, and the rest of the faculty—to a man—send up silent prayers of thankfulness because they were not given the assignment. Often a young teacher will accept the job with enthusiasm; but after several years, when the novelty has worn off, he resents the overtime that he spends on the task with no extra compensation, and he envies his colleagues who leave the building at the close of the school day.

No businessman can run his business without advertising, and the school administrator can afford to imitate his fellow Rotarians. Even a small sum allocated from school-activity funds for engravings, which are used for the school paper and are then available for release to the daily paper, will bring rich dividends in community good will.

Some administrators have organized public-relations programs for a school system but have decreed that all copy must clear through a central office, where mechanics alone may produce a delay of 24-48 hours. Since in news reporting "time is everything," it is clear that these public-relations programs would be improved by decentralization. For spot news of a routine nature, separate schools and individual faculty members should be free to send stories directly to the press. This direct action has an additional advantage in that American newspaper editors, since the days of John Peter Zenger, have been very jealous of the freedom of the press, and they resent "canned copy." These editors will co-operate better with a decentralized system, even though it is carefully co-ordinated behind the scenes.

School administrators are among the leaders in American society in recognizing the advantage of employing specialists in every field, and it is gratifying to note that, increasingly, they are employing specialists to man the public-relations assignments. Many a president of a small college, however, has hired one of his capable June graduates to do the public-relations work,

only to regret the choice when inexperience and lack of training have resulted in irreparable damage to public good will.

Conservative administrators are likely to assert that they cannot afford any frills and fads and that a public-relations program would be an unnecessary expense. Since part of the cost can be assigned to the legitimate teaching of journalism, which to the student is as valuable as history or physics, and since much of the cost can be paid from such income as activity funds and advertising, the cost to the taxpayer is not burdensome. When increased receipts from school plays and athletic contests pile up and the public develops pride in the school's educational activities, the modest cost of the public-relations program will be recognized as money well spent.

The average American taxpayer is not objecting to taxes but to wasteful spending of tax funds—a crime with which our schools are not usually charged. In those communities in which the public is proud of the schools because the people are "sold" on their activities, administrators know the value of a sound, well-organized program of public relations.

A New Design for the Training of College Teachers

RUTH E. ECKERT

STIMULATED by the G.I. Bill, college enrolments have soared impressively. Already 50 per cent above the highest pre-war level, the enrolments promise to be still greater during the next two or three years. Nor will this be only a temporary bulge in college attendance. Every broadening of educational opportunity in the past has increased permanently the demand for additional training. If national trends are maintained, we may look forward to enrolling in post-high-school institutions in 1960 a number of young people perhaps double the number who were attending before the war. This expansion will require a substantial increase in instructional personnel.

Need for Professional Training Opportunities

Since most of these new college teachers will be recruited from advanced university programs, gradu-

ate faculties have an unparalleled opportunity to improve the pattern of American higher education and, through it, the whole level of our civic and cultural life. Not only did our universities originate in a need to provide qualified teachers, but the education of teachers is central to the university's function. At both the undergraduate and the graduate levels, far more teachers are prepared than workers in any other professional field. And yet, ironically, college teachers are the only professional group for whom the training program has not been explicitly designed to prepare candidates for their oncoming responsibilities. A sense of the utter urgency of education in this atomic age should force every graduate faculty to re-examine the training provided prospective college teachers.

Since the individuals who most need professional orientation are those specializing in some field other than education or psychology, the suggestions developed in this article are primarily designed for prospective college teachers in these other fields. Also, the plan for

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a basic sequence has been formulated with the requirements in view of post-high-school teachers serving in various types of institutions,¹ for many young people do not reach a decision at the very start of their graduate work as to the particular kind of college or post-high-school institution in which they would like to serve. And all who teach courses beyond Grade XII ought to be thoroughly acquainted with the objectives and programs of other post-high-school institutions. Some differentiation in experiences is projected during the second year of the proposed program, so that preparation can be more sharply focused on the particular functions and challenges of the type of institution in which, by that time, the student will have decided to seek his first position. The present discussion is limited, too, in one other important respect, since it deals exclusively with the pre-service aspects of preparation. Obviously the orientation to professional problems attained during graduate days should be extended and deepened through programs of in-service training.

¹ It is recognized that prospective teachers in junior colleges, particularly those which are giving appropriate emphasis to terminal education, might profit more from a program explicitly designed for their preparation. Many such individuals should be encouraged to obtain experience at the high-school level first, since teaching posts in junior colleges often carry some responsibility for teaching senior high school courses.

Selection and Earlier Education of Candidates

While admission to a professional sequence should probably not occur until the beginning of the first graduate year, promising young people should be encouraged throughout their college course to consider the possibilities of college-teaching. And skilled counseling should help to confirm the decisions of those who possess both the scholarship and the personal traits needed for effective teaching. Attention must be given not only to academic achievement but to such matters as health habits, communication skills, emotional stability, breadth of recreational participation, and the interest shown by these students in the problems, activities, and adjustments of adolescents and young adults. Possession of personality traits required for the dynamic leadership of youth should certainly be most carefully determined before the student is admitted to the professional program.

The title of a North Central Association report, *Better Colleges—Better Teachers*,² indicates that thoughtful attention to the preparation of teachers must also involve appraisal of the total educational program offered by our colleges. For

² Russell M. Cooper and Collaborators of 28 Colleges, *Better Colleges—Better Teachers*. Published by the North Central Association Committee on the Preparation of High School Teachers in Colleges of Liberal Arts. New York: Distributed by the Macmillan Co., 1944.

a humanizing and broadening of the prospective teacher's outlook on the major fields of human activity is imperative if the teacher is to be expected to stimulate students to organize and correlate the things they learn and to apply them to current problems.

The critical need for general or liberal education renders it unsafe to assume that, because a student has been exposed to courses in a number of fields, he has acquired the wide-ranging interests, the meanings, the values, and the social outlook which these experiences should foster. Every student who expresses a serious interest in college-teaching should be thoroughly tested at the beginning of his graduate work, and as much earlier as possible, to see whether he has really attained a broadly based and closely integrated general education. Through many means he should be made conscious of the prime necessity of such liberal learning. To this end, general-education courses and seminars should be provided at the graduate level, as well as such other experiences as music-listening hours, forums, and art exhibits. Constantly the student should be challenged to develop the humane understandings, the reflective turn of mind, and the deep social concern that a teacher needs in his personal living and in his family, school, and community relationships.

When a decision is to be made on admitting a candidate to a training program for college-teaching, the extent and the quality of his achievement in the field in which he hopes to teach also merit critical study. No amount of specialized professional preparation can possibly correct for a fundamental deficiency in scholarship in the man's chosen field. The type of subject preparation needed by the teacher at the junior-college level, where most prospective college instructors will get jobs, differs markedly from that required by the instructor of an advanced or graduate course. The small size of many colleges, particularly those providing instruction only through Grade XIV, and the growing trend toward a divisional emphasis in the curriculum, argue either for a major field that is divisional, possibly even interdivisional, in its scope or for a reasonably broad departmental major supplemented by minors in related fields. To develop more functional types of majors, graduate faculties ought to study periodically the actual teaching responsibilities of their alumni who have accepted college posts. On the basis of these findings, programs of study could be developed that continue the broadening process now wholesomely evident at the undergraduate level, rather than the narrowing one so characteristic of many current Ph.D. programs.

Purposes and Goals of a Professional Sequence

Work in professional education is also essential, despite a somewhat naïve belief that the more mature the students with whom the teacher deals, the less attention has to be paid to objectives and methods of teaching. The growing heterogeneity of our college populations, the complexity of the higher mental processes involved in advanced study, and the acute need for stimulating college students to translate knowledge into action, to bring their specialized skill and talent to bear on the problems of our common life—all attest to the need for such professional preparation. If a college teacher is to be more than a purveyor of information, he must understand the place of personality, interest, and goals in the educational process. As Coleman Griffith remarked a few years ago, "Masters of subject matter are not likely to be teachers until they have mastered the prior subject matter of human nature."³ The prospective teacher also should become skilled in some field of teaching and have a clear view of the entire educational program within which that skill is to be exercised.

Prospective college teachers outside the fields of psychology and education probably could not be

persuaded to devote to work in educational fields much more time than that now required of prospective high-school teachers. The latter certainly ought not be considered an exorbitant amount, especially if college-teaching is to merit classification as a profession. More could be accomplished in this limited time, however, than might at first appear, since the work would be done in the graduate school and therefore could be pitched at a higher maturity level.

The suggestions that follow sketch in broad outline the kind of orientation to educational problems that might be made available to such individuals. A word should first be said about the control of this program, since some agency should be given responsibility for selecting students and designing an adequate program. In many institutions it would seem administratively sound to vest this authority in the education department, but in others it might be more advisable to create a new all-university agency, especially if there should be any doubt of securing full co-operation of subject specialists in a scheme where the education department assumed primary responsibility. In any case, an advisory committee, including subject specialists and educational experts, ought to develop recommendations with respect to the total character of this experience, including its ob-

³ Coleman R. Griffith, "Psychology and the College Instructor," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIII (April, 1942), 228.

jectives, curriculum content, and evaluation procedures.

The first task of such a committee, in which it obviously ought to seek aid from other faculty members and students, would be to set explicit objectives. Selection of curriculum content, of instructional methods, and of other experiences can be intelligently done only when ideas about the kind of educational product sought are very clear. The following suggests major aims for this type of orientation. The prospective college teacher should develop the following characteristics:

1. An understanding of educational objectives and school programs at all levels, with special emphasis on the evolution, functions, and problems of various types of post-high-school institutions in our democratic society

2. An appreciation of social trends affecting the task of post-high-school institutions

3. A keen sense of the functional relationship that prevails between aims and content, with a developed ability to formulate goals for curriculums, courses, and units

4. An understanding of human development and human relations, including the values, adjustments, and problems of people in our society

5. An understanding of the psychology of the learner, and skill in applying principles of effective learning to work with adolescents and young adults who vary widely in their interests and abilities

6. An appreciation of major trends in college and university education, coupled with an ability to identify the

philosophic and psychological issues in current controversies and to apply sound criteria of evaluation to new proposals for college reorganization

7. An understanding of principles of curriculum development and the ability to apply them in the selection and organization of subject matter for teaching purposes

8. A knowledge of the adjustment and guidance problems of college youth and some developed skill in counseling individual students

9. A grasp of basic principles of evaluation, coupled with skill in formulating tests and other appraisal instruments, in administering them, and in interpreting findings derived from their use

10. An understanding of the nature and the significance of the teaching profession and of the responsibilities of the individual teacher

11. A readiness to experiment with new procedures and materials, and to view sympathetically such experimentation on the part of others

12. Skill in participating democratically in the development of educational policy and the solution of problems arising in college life

General Character of the Sequence

A scattered group of education courses, taken in any order which the demands and pressures of specialized study may determine, will certainly not achieve the kind of orientation anticipated above. Instead, there is need for a well-organized and integrated program in which many agencies of the university would co-operate. A

two-year sequence paralleling the student's specialized study should provide reasonably adequate pre-service training for most students. This would include a core course, requiring about a fourth of the student's time throughout the first year, and more extended participation during the second year in teaching and in seminar activities, perhaps again requiring roughly a fourth of the student's time. This latter experience ought to provide for teaching under guidance of a skilled college instructor in the student's major field, as well as membership in a seminar designed to help him interpret his practical experiences in terms of educational theory.

To assure a satisfactory degree of integration in the basic course, a co-ordinator would be essential. But much of the stimulating character of the experience would come from participation of several faculty members, with at least two present at every session. Subject-matter specialists as well as members of the education staff ought to outline their distinctive views and outlooks on college problems. Teachers from other types of colleges, such as junior colleges, teachers' colleges, and small liberal arts colleges, should certainly be brought into some of these discussions. Since the students in the course would be highly selected individuals, they could assume a

great deal of responsibility for the panel discussions and informal committee sessions in which such a course should abound.

To encourage systematic study of the problems of higher education, a detailed syllabus ought to be developed for the basic course. Properly conceived, it would encourage students to focus their reading and discussions on the more critical issues and developments. While no syllabus can guarantee integration, it might contribute potently to this end by stimulating relational thinking on these problems. Also, provision of such a comprehensive outline of subject content and suggested projects would make it unnecessary to discuss many facts and techniques in regular class sessions, thus freeing class time for more profitable inquiry. If the students were given many opportunities to evaluate the content of such a syllabus and to develop materials for its annual revision, candidates would gain experience in exactly what every college teacher must do, namely, provide a reasonable balance in his courses between "heritage and change," between emphasis on tested materials of other years and experimentation with new materials and devices.

Points Meriting Special Emphasis in Instruction

Certain points ought to be uniformly stressed in the core course,

though its exact organization would naturally vary from one institution to another. For example, most students would later accept jobs either in junior colleges or in the lower division of four-year institutions, making it imperative that educational problems at that level receive major consideration. Prospective teachers would have to be aided in many ways to shift attention from the specialized kinds of study in which they were themselves engaged to those appropriate to the vast majority of young people who take no further work in a particular field beyond that given in a Freshman and Sophomore course. To effect such a change in perspective, students ought to study for themselves some of the dramatic facts of academic mortality, and they might well analyze the courses taken by students who stay through a two-year or a four-year program to determine what kind of preparation young people typically get in various fields. Participation in studies of the extent to which college-trained adults need various insights, skills, and attitudes that might be developed through college study in a particular field should also contribute to a totally different orientation of thinking with respect to the college and its curriculum.

Since most graduate courses emphasize acquisition of highly specialized information, the core course ought to pay special heed to

the development of more permanent learnings. If prospective college teachers are to help their future students arrive at broad concepts and generalizations, acquire skills of intellectual workmanship and mature living, and cultivate motivations and basic loyalties, the teachers themselves must be afforded experiences that demonstrate how these are developed. They should also be given practice in applying their learning to a variety of situations, so that the concepts and abilities which they acquire may be functional in many contexts. The course itself should be made a vivid illustration of how school experiences can contribute to the permanent development of the individual, not merely to his satisfaction of course or examination requirements.

Experiences Designed To Implement Attainment of Goals

At least four types of experience should parallel group discussions, committee work, and independent reading. The most extended would be actual teaching, in which the student could test his theories of education and the clues that he has gained from observation of other teachers. Since study of educational problems is bound to mean far more to the student who has himself been confronted with the bewildering complexities of guiding student learning, this apprentice

teaching should begin early in the sequence and continue, with increasing emphasis, throughout the second year of professional study. And it should be under guidance of a college teacher in the field in which the student expects to teach. Sufficient observation, followed by critical discussion of the classes visited, should parallel apprentice teaching, so that the candidate is afforded ample opportunity to identify elements that contribute to effective learning.

These supplementary experiences should also include careful studies of individual students, usually selected from a class taught by the prospective teacher. By using facts to illumine and extend his understanding of a particular student, the candidate should become aware of the values of the many kinds of descriptive information and test data that are normally gathered by a personnel officer. After he has gained some familiarity with such records and with the behavior of young people in classroom and student-activity situations, he should have guided practice in counseling individual students. With cases carefully selected to represent vocational and personal difficulties, as well as recurrent educational problems, the prospective teacher would become sensitized to differing needs of students and the many college resources that exist for dealing with them.

Along with teaching and counseling experiences should go carefully planned trips and field work. Certainly the prospective teacher needs to understand the resources of the community for the development of college youth, and the kinds of programs that are offered in the public elementary and secondary schools from which most college students come. He ought also to become intelligently acquainted with the work that other types of post-high-school institutions are doing—for example, the near-by public junior college, the technical institute, the small denominational liberal arts college, and the teachers' college. His skill and competence as a teacher will likewise be increased as he becomes acquainted with the many agencies on a college campus that contribute to the education of college youth, such as health services, speech clinics, student-activity bureaus, and testing offices. And he certainly ought to glimpse the post-college activities of the vast majority of students who do not choose the academic life. Moreover, his sense of social responsibility will be fostered if he is encouraged to serve as an adviser for some student organization, for example, as assistant to the debating, dramatic, or athletic coach, or as a leader of a youth group off the campus.

Finally, prospective college teachers should also learn how to

appraise their work and experiment intelligently with new procedures. A practicum in the scientific study of educational problems would help to orient the student to this important, but usually neglected, aspect of the college teacher's work. In this connection experiences could be afforded in building tests and other evaluative instruments, in administering them, and in finding out the meaning of the results for the improvement of instruction. Participation in a co-operative study of some institutional problem would demonstrate how teachers in various fields can pool efforts in developing more valid types of educational experience for students in a particular curriculum or college. The main stress in this phase of the course would be on designing studies and evaluating findings, rather than on acquiring proficiency in techniques of analysis.

Importance of Thorough Evaluation

One of the most promising ways of developing this evaluative attitude on the part of prospective teachers would be to demonstrate the usefulness of appraisal techniques in shaping the experimental program itself. Participants will grasp more fully the importance of

studying students as they see tests of aptitude, breadth of general education, specialized competence, and desirable personal characteristics increasingly used in selecting candidates for the core course. And they will be initiated into new and better ways of judging pupil performance as the professional program itself makes imaginative use of various devices, including comprehensive examinations that transcend paper-and-pencil boundaries, in exploring students' attainment of basic objectives. If such appraisal were extended beyond what is done on the campus, to include study of the problems and adjustments of young college teachers, participants would gain invaluable experience for their later professional work. In addition, such studies would yield some of the most fruitful clues for the improvement of the basic program.

The time seems ripe for significant experimentation, especially since reorganizations in our undergraduate college programs are focusing attention on the need for broadly educated college teachers. A university is hardly entitled to prepare students for this high profession unless the many problems of college-teaching are being thoughtfully studied within its walls.

What's in a Name? Communications or English?

KENNETH WINETROUT

ASK, "What's in a name?" of any group of English teachers in the United States, and the response will gradually work itself up to an audible "would smell as sweet." This response is symptomatic. For one thing, it clearly shows that teachers of English are just that: teachers of English. They even think in terms of familiar quotations, from Shakespeare to Matthew Arnold. Second, if they complete these lines from *Romeo and Juliet* without experiencing doubt as to the truth of the quotation, there is some reason to wonder whether they are good teachers of English, that is, in their capacity as teachers of writing. All of us know that there is something to a name. Every trade name on the market bears evidence. All of us know that a rose by any other name certainly would not smell as sweet. Modern semantics just will not let this simple aphorism get by.

May I suggest that, if we were

to change the name of our courses from "English" to "communications," we would in fact be on our way to a new orientation in our writing instruction. Here we have another example of the importance of a name. "Communications" may not smell as sweet as "English," but it might prove a great deal more effective in bringing about adequate writing skills. As long as we call our courses in written composition "English," we are in danger of catering to standards which are not realistic, of setting up goals which are not functional.

Since English teachers teach literature, they have a natural tendency to think of writing after the style of one of the great English, and possibly American, prose writers. Rather unconsciously they are likely to think of the patterns left us by Charles Lamb, William Hazlitt, Robert Louis Stevenson. Here and there an aesthetic soul may even think of Walter Pater. This is not to suggest that either teachers or their students cannot profit by studying these men. The point is that this kind of orientation may, and often does, mislead

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writing instructors; it has a way of shifting the emphasis away from the real goal: effective communication.

At an earlier day we did not call our writing courses "English"; we called them "grammar." Writing instruction under this stern master rarely got beyond learning the rules and memorizing classical selections. Here we sought to emulate the classic expressions of the Latin writers. Here we had the concept of mental discipline at its height; only now and then was there an opportunity to find out whether transfer of training could take place. Grammar was one of the seven liberal arts, and as such it was only one step removed from logic. Changing the name of our writing courses from "grammar" to "English" helped to free us from the unnecessary rigors of disciplinary exercises in a dead language.

In spite of all the lamentations of the purists that the teaching of writing has deteriorated to the point of sheer sloppiness, this tradition of the literary style from the field of English literature and the formalistic content of Latin grammar forms the basic principles of our English instruction. From this tradition we got our standards. This was our point of departure. Grammar was good when the goal of education was competent scholastics. The literary style was good

when we were geared to turning out gentlemen for the leisure class. We are beyond both of these points in history and in education.

It is suggested, therefore, that we call our writing courses "communications," not "English." Whether we are willing or not to give up the name of "English," every English teacher who has anything to do with writing instruction in high school or college should become oriented to the concept of communication as it applies to writing. This change of name would effect changes in our training of teachers. Under the present nomenclature we are always training English teachers. This means that the teacher of writing has the usual Freshman course in English composition, one course in methods, and then a whole series of courses in periods and types of English and American literature. This program is continued in teacher-training institutions although it is common knowledge that high-school English teachers are most often and most severely criticized for the way in which they teach writing, not for the way in which they teach literature.

We find the same situation in college. College professors are prone to talk about the writing deficiencies of their students. But would any English major, any Ph.D. candidate, organize his schedule in

such a manner that his goal was the teaching of Freshman composition? No, not on your life! Freshman composition is a stepping-stone to literature. It is a waiting-room until an appointment in early American literature or in Chaucer comes along. It is one of the punishments which one must undergo to gain initiation into the fellowship of professors of literature.

If we were to think of writing as communications and not as English, then we should at least make some headway out of our dilemma, our impasse. Then writing would not have to take a lower position in the literary hierarchy. It would not have to be the poor relation. Then, perhaps, we could train persons to be communications instructors, and not leave this important task to individuals who are temporarily delayed on their academic trip upward.

There are dangers, no doubt, in adding another special course to the college curriculum, which has fairly divided itself out of existence by catering to specialistic demands. I think we are justified in the case of communications. English departments have treated it as a black sheep.

Perhaps communications is not yet ready to have a go on its own. Perhaps the work in the field is too thin. Perhaps no competent in-

structors could be found. However, it is on its way. In a few years, maybe ten, it will be ready to challenge English departments for the right to train writing instructors. This field is growing. Rudolf Flesch with his doctoral dissertation and his more recent *The Art of Plain Talk* has probably been the greatest single impetus to communication. Edgar Dale, of Ohio State University, has been working in this field for some years. Robert Gunning, of Columbus, Ohio, has recently received national attention for his work on the readability of daily newspapers. To the writings of these men currently at work in the field, we should add such books as Stephen Leacock's *How To Write* and H. L. Mencken's *The American Language*. The literature in the field will grow.

English teachers have labored hard and long under the old literary-grammar tradition in an effort to get students to write *correctly*. If we could organize our thinking, our teaching, in terms of *effective* writing, then we might go ahead with a new vigor. By this time a certain weariness has crept into the literary-grammar tradition; we need that shift in emphasis which would ask first, "Does it communicate?" and then, "Is it correct?" A change in name might help us make this shift.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

THE writer has now climbed the first hill of experience as the executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges. It is in order, therefore, to look back over the road of twelve months for something of an overview of the junior colleges. Constructive reflections on the problems, accomplishments, and trends of the past year may throw light on the direction that our course should take for the future.

In a sense, the road has been one of physical aspects in that a great deal of traveling has been done to various sections of the country. If the Executive Secretary's steps could be traced on a map of the United States, the red line of the itinerary would be drawn about as follows: Washington by air across the mountains to Detroit, Michigan, to Port Huron, and back to Detroit by car; to Rochester, New York, by train; and from that point to Washington by air; westward ho—Washington to St. Louis, Kansas City, Los Angeles, Glendale, Pasadena, San Bernardino Valley, Bakersfield, Salt Lake City, Ogden, and across the Great Rockies, the far-reaching plains and fertile val-

leys of the Middle West, through the eastern ranges, and home.

The little book of travels shows New York City for the Middle Atlantic States Association, Boston for New England, and Memphis for the Southern during the month of December. Christmas was over, and duties connected with the national convention were pressing hard. More exhibits had to be secured, more advertising solicited for the *Junior College Journal*, and a banquet speaker obtained. So it was back to New York and to many places in the great, rushing city. The Secretary traveled to Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, for the state meeting of junior colleges, and back to the capital for final details and materials for the annual meeting.

It was now the middle of February, and the red line moved out to St. Louis for the national convention, back to Columbus, Ohio, and home. Danville, Virginia; Atlantic City, New Jersey; a few breath-catching days at the office, and a long trip began to Little Rock, Arkansas; Jackson, Mississippi; and from this central point by car and bus to Wesson, Decatur,

Scooba, Raymond, Goodman, Ellisville, Meridian, Gulfport, Perkins-ton, Poplarville, Summit, Moorhead, Brookhaven, and Senatobia. Leaving Mississippi, the way led up to Memphis and out to Dallas, Texas, and by car to Arlington, Terrell, Longview, Kilgore, Beaumont, Houston, and by train back to Washington on Easter morning in time for church.

The middle of April called for another trip to Columbus, Ohio, where the state legislature was considering a bill for junior colleges. New Haven, Connecticut; Hagerstown, Maryland; and Bethesda for Montgomery Junior College; Wilmington, North Carolina; New York City for Walter Hervey Junior College, McGraw-Hill Book Company, the Little Academy; and we were in June with preparations under way for summer workshops.

The final round for the year began at Washington and took us to Kansas City to arrange details for the 1948 convention; to Tonkawa, Oklahoma, for Northern Oklahoma Junior College; to Norman for a three-day conference at the University of Oklahoma; to Pueblo Colorado, visiting the junior college there; to the University of Denver for the workshop; to Nashville, Tennessee, at George Peabody College for a week; off to Chicago for the summer meeting of the Board of Directors and Research and Service Committees; a short meet-

ing on an advisory committee for the publication of junior-college books; and at last it was home for a vacation!

The first year, however, has had many aspects other than the physical. Correspondence has been heavy at all times. Addresses have been numerous; conferences, consultations, personal interviews on practically every phase of the junior-college movement; meetings on both the state and the national level regarding legislation for education, assistance in founding new junior colleges, directing the distribution of information, press releases, and many contacts with various departments of the national government and with other educational associations have filled the days with activity.

Moreover, writing has consumed more time and energy than was anticipated. This phase of the work has been most welcome because it has opened several avenues for spreading the news and philosophy of the junior college. Some of the more important contributions have been twenty-nine pages in the *Junior College Journal*; "Some Critical Problems in Junior Colleges," March issue of the *California Journal of Secondary Education*; "The Role of the Junior College for the Youth of Today," April issue, *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*; "What Is a Good Junior College?"

April issue of the *Bulletin of the Texas Junior College Association*; "The Junior College," April issue of the *Journal of the National Education Association* (also arranged for a feature article on the Bakersfield Junior College for the same issue); "The Mississippi State System of Junior Colleges," April issue, *Mississippi Educational Advance*; "Junior College Picks Up Speed," the guest editorial for the June issue of *College and University Business*; and "The Future of the Junior College," July issue of *School Executive*. The Executive Secretary has been elected by the American Council on Education as editor for the second edition of *American Junior Colleges*, and the work on this volume is well under way. In the face-lifted *Washington Newsletter*, eighty pages of written material have been produced, and the circulation has doubled from six hundred to twelve hundred a month.

Now that the top of the first hill has been reached, how does the landscape appear back across the year and in the other direction for the year ahead? From a personal point of view, the work has been interesting and satisfying. The most enjoyable feature of all has been the personal acquaintance with junior-college administrators, teachers, and students, and our work with officers and committees of the Association and the employees at the of-

fice, with the University of Chicago, and a host of persons in various capacities who are interested in the junior college. The hospitality, the kindness, and the co-operation of everyone highlights the view of the past and casts its rays into the future. The junior colleges across the whole nation appear to be happy and friendly. Consideration of possible results of an opposite attitude makes it easy to see how valuable friendliness and co-operation are in the life of any organization—local, state, or national.

Some of the problems, which will persist for years to come, are:

1. In many places progress has been made in obtaining adequate financial support for both public and private colleges, but there is a long road ahead. A strong public-relations program is necessary to carry forward the cause of educational support to a point where it will be adequate and permanent. Junior-college people must join forces more closely with other organizations in all the states and on a national basis in order to secure legislation for all worthy educational movements.

2. Problems of physical space and equipment have been in various stages of solution. Much remains to be done, and satisfactory solutions of the problems are handicapped by inflationary conditions in the building industry and trades. Surplus properties of all kinds have been of indispensable assistance and will continue to be so for some time to come.

3. Difficulties in securing an adequate number of properly qualified teachers and staff members have

gradually eased and may be expected to improve somewhat during the coming year.

4. Books, teaching materials, and scientific equipment have been difficult to obtain. Prospects for the coming year appear to be brighter as production improves.

5. It is imperative that curriculums be built so that students everywhere may have opportunities to develop their best talents vocationally and, at the same time, secure general education designed to fit them for the kind of world in which they are living and to strengthen them to make a world of the kind that is fit to live in. To aid in this task, there should be many more summer workshops in every section of the nation for junior-college administrators and teachers. Institutes should be set up in every junior college for co-operative thinking and group planning on this great problem. After all, every college must build its own program. Research should be continued in and through the Association to produce more and better materials for the guidance of builders of educational programs.

6. Adult education has made some forward strides and will offer one of the greatest future opportunities for junior colleges. Short courses for both vocational and cultural purposes should be offered to persons of whatever age or educational level—courses whereby they may improve themselves, increase their efficiency, and develop a better understanding of national and world problems. If a junior college is a community college in name, it must prove itself to be so in fact by extending its benefits to all the people in the community who will accept them. Even for selfish reasons, the extension of such

services proves to be a sound policy because, in the long run, public good will returns to any college more than the college gives to the public.

In addition to the six points named above, we look ahead in the coming year to an accelerated implementation of other needed programs of work in the junior colleges. The complicated situations in the industrial, political, and social life of our time are reflected in the tangled emotional and mental conditions of many students. Much greater emphasis must, therefore, be placed on guidance by persons who by sympathy, understanding, and life-experiences are thoroughly qualified to assist our students to make the proper adjustments. The junior college has only two years, at most, in which to show students the way they should go. This delicate and complex problem demands the best possible facilities, personnel, and attention. All colleges with veteran students have an added obligation because these students must make so many adjustments, not only to college life, but also to the entire civilian situation.

Adequate funds must be sought for an expanded program of research. The results of research must have avenues opened whereby they may become available to the rank and file of the teachers and staff officers of all the junior colleges. During the past year the circula-

tion of the *Junior College Journal* was increased from 615 to 1,142 among teachers in the junior colleges on the group-subscription basis. There should be at least 10,000 subscribers among our more than 20,000 teachers. The *Journal* is one avenue through which research results can be carried to faculties. Moreover, every qualified junior college should be in the Association, actively participating in its affairs. We shall do all within our power to reach a goal of at least five hundred college members during the coming year. Services of the Association can thereby be enlarged and extended to a wider circle of institutions and persons who need the assistance of the Association.

The need for a national board of speakers becomes more keenly felt every day. The response to invitations for membership in this proposed program has been most gratifying. Wide publicity will be given through all types of organizations—industrial, labor, educational, religious, and others—interested in an understanding of the place and function of the junior college in American education. Then, too, an examination of college papers which come to the Desk shows the need for a clip-sheet service whereby news of the total junior-college movement may be made available through these local college papers

to all the students in all the colleges. If funds were on hand or in sight, a national public-relations program for junior colleges, on a scale never before attempted by the Association, would pay dividends to the colleges by way of increased support from public and private resources.

More definite and closely knit cooperation should be established with all leading universities for a better understanding between them and junior colleges. Junior colleges need teachers who have had some special training for the type of work offered in these institutions. Universities can supply this personnel, but not with the educational programs which many of them are giving at the present time. Especially difficult to find are men with a broad academic background of general education, plus technical training of the more practical junior-college type, plus considerable experience in technical work. For their courses in automobile mechanics, refrigeration and air conditioning, sheet-metal work, and similar fields, many junior colleges have been compelled to employ teachers who have little more to offer than long practical experience. Senior institutions specializing in agricultural and mechanical education could perform a great service for junior colleges by supplying them with master-teachers of a

more practical type. Moreover, the junior college as an integral part of American education receives scant treatment in too many schools of education. Closer co-operation is necessary to correct this mistake.

In conclusion, junior colleges should give greater emphasis during the coming year to world understanding and co-operation. Through various channels a vast amount of practical work has been accomplished toward reconstruction in war-devastated countries. This work should be enlarged, but, of far greater importance, cultural contacts must be made with all peoples so that all may understand each other and work together for a world of peace. No one can think of another world war without realizing that it would mean the destruc-

tion of practically every foundation on which civilization rests today. There should be a more extensive program for the exchange of students and teachers, and better teaching for a more intelligent grasp of the basic facts and principles for the establishment of workable international relations. This program should be extended to all students, not merely to university-parallel students, but also to the terminal, special, and adult members of the college and to the community at large.

The road ahead is long and steep, but it is alluring. This is an invitation to all junior-college people to pool our clearest thinking and best efforts for advancement as far and fast as resources and strength may permit.

Recent Writings

Judging the New Books

ROY IVAN JOHNSON (general editor), *Explorations in General Education: The Experiences of Stephens College*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1947. Pp. x + 262. \$3.00.

STEPHENS COLLEGE, general education, and curriculum research have been intimately associated for over a quarter of a century. For this reason the publication of *Explorations in General Education: The Experiences of Stephens College* appears as a logical development emanating from this association. But just as each part of this combination has been the subject of much controversy, it is equally logical to expect the reception of a book pertaining to the three parts to elicit mixed response. Objectivity in treating with any one of the three parts is difficult; to treat all three in the same book in an objective manner is impossible.

Four groups of professional workers will find this publication well worth their study. These include (1) teachers and administrators in junior colleges, both private and public; (2) teachers and administrators in private and public high

schools; (3) teachers and administrators responsible for the curriculum and instruction program of the first two years of the four-year college; and (4) students of general education.

For many years junior-college leaders have stressed as a function of their schools the rounding-out of the program of general education. Despite the maturity of this claim, few junior colleges have compiled a satisfactory record of accomplishment. Lack of familiarity with useful procedures for setting up such programs probably ranks high among the causes for this situation. The *Explorations* will prove of value in satisfying this need. Other publications, such as *A Design for General Education*,¹ present patterns of curriculum areas which are of use to a wider range of junior colleges, but they do not provide so practical a discussion of implementing procedures as is found in the *Explorations*.

The growing concern of high schools and of four-year colleges

¹ *A Design for General Education*. American Council on Education Studies, Vol. VIII. Series I—Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 18. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

about better-rounded programs of general education creates a similar need as the one ascribed to junior colleges. In this respect the description of the Stephens experiences will be equally satisfying.

Students of general education will find in the book the basis for much critical analysis. However, the straightforward account of what one junior college has done, with a minimum of suggestion that any part of the plan be adopted by other schools, will deprive the hypercritical of the opportunity for attacking any such suggestions. In the final analysis, the book comprises an account of accomplishments, possibly colored by a certain pride of the authors, but in no sense a sermon with a moral for others.

Roy Ivan Johnson, the general editor, has divided the book into eight chapters. Actually, the material falls logically into three divisions, with the last division suited for subdivision into three parts. The first division, comprising the first chapter, "Backgrounds and Viewpoints," deals with the development of the concept of general education and recounts the adaptation of this concept to the Stephens program. The second division of the outline includes the material in the second chapter, "Survey of the Research Program." This division is given over to a description of the development and nature of the program of research at Stephens. The

third through the eighth chapters are concerned with the steps by which the component parts of the general-education program were developed. The third, fourth, fifth and sixth chapters, entitled, respectively, "A Basic Course in the Humanities," "Education for Marriage," "Training for Civic Leadership," and "Communications," describe activities associated with the in-class program; the seventh chapter, "Clinical Techniques in Education," describes the clinics; and the eighth chapter deals with "Extra-Class Life."

Students will find in the first division that the Rousseau-Pestalozzi-Froebel-Dewey line of antecedents of contemporary ideas of general education is given adequate though not overemphasized attention. Junior-college administrators who constantly face the specter of loss of credits by their students who transfer will find in the discussion of "A Persisting Problem" (pp. 11-12) a basis for sympathetic understanding with those at Stephens who undertook the development of the general-education curriculum. Both students and junior-college administrators, however, will probably consider that the discussion of religion as one of the basic areas is overlabored in comparison with the amount of discussion given to other areas.

The description of the research program, logically the second divi-

sion of the book, presents the material under three headings: "The Inception, Development, and Direction of the Research Program at Stephens College," "Survey of Research Activities," and "Brief Summaries of Selected Studies." Under the first heading the discussion revolves around the philosophy underlying the research program, the faculty activities, and the contributions made by such leaders as W. W. Charters, Ralph W. Tyler, W. S. Gray, and others. Material under the second heading portrays the broad areas covered by the program, while the third part of this chapter comprises descriptions illustrating specifically the types of studies undertaken.

The organization of the content in the third division dealing with the in-class, the extra-class, and the clinical aspects of the educational program was developed from "first drafts or suggestive outlines of material" prepared by seven present or former members of the Stephens staff. The editor, however, has done his work well. His editing has produced sufficient uniformity of style to prevent loss of continuity and, at the same time, has retained enough of the personality of the several writers to relieve the reading of monotony. This result has been achieved in part by following a similar outline of the related topics discussed under the in-class subject fields and a modification of

this outline in discussing the clinics. This outline observes the following related topics: (1) the need for the offering, (2) steps involved in developing the offering, (3) the nature of the offering at the present time, (4) existing problems, (5) evaluation of the effectiveness of the offering, and (6) considerations for the future.

The third chapter, dealing with the organization of the humanities course, is the best of the four that are concerned with the in-class program. This rating is assigned on the basis of organization of material, clarity of description, and comprehensiveness of detail. The many junior-college staff members who have been working on the problem of organizing a humanities course will find in this chapter practical suggestions to help them in their work.

The reader will probably emerge from the thirty-five-page chapter on education for marriage with the reaction that, so far as its practical value is concerned, the same results could have been obtained in about half the space. The first section is given over to a prolonged sociological discussion of the general need for marriage courses. This is followed by three sections, the content of which will be of interest and value to the reader. The succeeding section, "Other Contributions from College Experience," lists some rather obvious implications of other

courses for students being educated for marriage. The section entitled "A Word about the Teacher" lists three personal qualities for those who teach the course. This mixing of the obvious with the significant characterizes the remainder of the chapter.

The discussion of training for civic leadership is well presented. The two writers who presented the original materials out of which this chapter developed were probably cognizant of the disagreement which their suggestions would cause among the more traditional teachers of the several social sciences. Evidence of this will be found in such places as the discussions of the type of approach that the course shall make and of the use of current events in the classes. Readers who have worked with the problem of organizing such courses will observe with interest the methods employed at Stephens in meeting similar problems. Many practical suggestions will be found in this chapter.

The effectiveness of the discussion of the development of the communications course is marred by excessive use of footnotes to make parenthetical comments. While some of these notes add to the clarity of the reader's understanding, their total effect is one of irritation. Actually, the chapter is well organized, and the descriptions deal with significant information. It is

unfortunate that overuse of this mechanical detail was permitted.

The reader will do well to acquaint himself thoroughly with the definition of the term "clinic" as used at Stephens before he reads the descriptions of the eleven clinics and clinic-type services found in chapter vii. As defined, "the term is used to denote a highly specialized form of individualized instruction, academic, therapeutic, or both, in the interest of the individual student's total growth and development" (p. 186). In light of this definition, the ensuing pages fall logically into place. The careless reader who omits this precaution may find himself confused if he relies on the more traditional meaning of the term.

As has been indicated, the description of the clinics follows a modified plan of that used to describe the in-class areas of the educational program. Generally speaking, these descriptions list (1) the purposes, (2) the operational nature, and (3) an evaluation of the effectiveness of the clinic. The following clinics are described: health service; occupational guidance clinic; psychological clinic; religious guidance clinic; reading clinic; better speech center; and, under the heading "Other Clinic-Type Services," management of personal finance, clothing and personal appearance, interior decoration, personal libraries, and posture

analysis and correction. Of these, the sections dealing with the reading clinic and the better speech center contain the most helpful suggestions. The weakest part of the chapter is the two-page detailed description of "some indications of maladjustment," conditions with which every experienced teacher and administrator have long since become familiar. Of passing interest will be the type of problems met by those who direct the religious guidance clinic.

The last chapter in the book is concerned with a description of extra-class life at Stephens. The clue to a full understanding of the material presented lies in the use of the term "extra-class" in preference to the more widely used "extra-curriculum." There could be little justification for such a comprehensive program (some cynical readers may feel that there is none anyway) if the activities described were not regarded as logical means to induce progress toward the overall curriculum goals. The curricularizing of these out-of-class activities presents them in a justifiable role.

The chapter opens with a listing of the educational concepts and the controlling policies which have determined the nature and the extent of the extra-class activities. A consideration of this list might well be recommended for any college, junior or senior, which is seriously

interested in making the most of its out-of-class program.

The all-student Civic Association and its nine major divisions are described fully. While the operational details of this organization are of minor interest, the reader will probably be impressed with its all-inclusive scope. Some idea of the scope may be obtained from the names of the divisions: Pan-Hellenic Council, Independent Council ("A large proportion of students do *not* express preference for sorority membership" [p. 236]), Student Activity Board, Campus Service Board, Board of Publications, Council of Class Officers, World-Citizenship Organization, Recreation Association, and Senior Sister Council.

The section entitled "Administrative Procedures" deals with such topics as student elections, training of student officers, orienting new students, calendaring the extra-class activities, keeping a record of participation, curricularizing the extra-curriculum, and matters of publicity, equipment, finance, and records of the various organizations. This section is the most valuable in the chapter in providing practical suggestions for improving the contribution of an extra-class program.

The last section of the chapter deals with the evaluation of the extra-class program. Five criteria are advanced for effecting this eval-

uation, and the Stephens program is checked against each. Despite the fact that each of the criteria is applied without rationalization, the reader will probably evince a wish that the results had been a little less favorable. When a program of this nature checks out too perfectly, there is always a feeling that something has been overlooked.

Viewed as a whole, the book possesses the customary quota of strong and weak points. These strengths and weaknesses, for the most part, exist in the usefulness that the material will have for the four groups of readers listed in the early part of this review. Before any over-all evaluation is attempted, attention is directed to the desirable and the undesirable features.

The faculty of Stephens College is pictured as a group constantly stimulated by an acceptance of the idea of co-operative study of the problems of curriculum and instruction. Authorities will probably disagree in their judgments of whether the use of the term "research" to characterize these studies is always accurate. Moreover, the more cynical may question whether the faculty is as thoroughly imbued with the idea of co-operative study as the book implies. With due regard to these limitations, however, the evidence is clear that an abundance of co-operative study does take place and that this study produces results. This fact should present a convincing argument to the skept-

tics who are inclined to doubt the efficacy of this approach to the solving of curriculum and instruction problems.

One significant aspect of the organization of the book is the frequency with which reference is made to the original set of curriculum purposes in existence at Stephens. Many high schools, junior colleges, and senior colleges, have written out their purposes, but too often the purposes have become mere window-dressing. When this situation exists, what the school purports to do in its curriculum program bears little resemblance to what is done in the classrooms. Readers may reject all the over-all curriculum objectives which have been set up at Stephens, but, in using the book as a guide for curriculum practice, many can profit from the methods suggested for translating institutional purposes into classroom experiences.

The professional literature includes several examples of descriptions of the content of general education as well as discussions of the requisite qualities for teachers working in this field. Textbooks are beginning to appear whose organization makes them appropriate for use in the fields of general education. Between the stage of identifying the fields and selecting textbooks for classes, however, lies a series of problems involved in developing general-education classes. Unfortunately there is a paucity of

literature recounting the specific steps taken by institutions which have passed through this intermediary stage. Stephens College presents such a description of its experiences, and this description, as it applies to the fields of humanities, civic training, education for marriage, and communications, will be of value to other curriculum workers who desire assistance in solving this problem.

One of the factors which will severely restrict the usefulness of *Explorations in General Education* is that of the cost which such a program will entail. This is not meant to disparage the expenditure of funds for the services described but to stress the probability that most readers of this volume will represent institutions that do not have the available funds to be expended. In considering this factor, readers should keep in mind that the financial inability of their institutions to duplicate the program described does not remove the possibility of utilizing the suggestions in a less expensive manner.

Descriptions of the effectiveness of the various in-class, extra-class, and clinical procedures throughout the book usually contain a section on evaluation. Several methods are employed in these evaluations, among them, a sampling of student and parent opinions. The reliability and objectivity of this method will be questioned by many readers.

The omission of the field of natu-

ral sciences from the description of the development, operation, and evaluation of the general-education courses will be regretted by those readers who desire to use the book as a source of suggestions for setting up courses. The reviewer knows from personal experience that the field of natural science presents one of the most persistent problems for junior-college curriculum workers as they try to fit the field into a general-education program. The lack of consideration of this topic constitutes a definite weakness of the book.

In summary, the volume possesses, as would be expected, many points of strength and weakness. Many of the weaknesses which have been listed exist only as curriculum workers undertake to employ the volume as a guide to the solution of their own problems. In all fairness, the point should be made that the preparation of such a guide was not the primary purpose of those who wrote the book. Some of the weaknesses are inherent in the organization and the presentation of the materials. For these, the editor must accept responsibility. The strong points, however, are sufficiently predominant to recommend the publication to all readers who are interested in general education, curriculum research, and Stephens College.

JAMES W. REYNOLDS
Professor of Education

GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS

Selected References

S. V. MARTORANA

BOGUE, JESSE P. "The Role of the Junior College for the Youth of Today," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (April, 1947), 129-35.

Defines a junior college as an "organized educational institution offering either terminal or university-parallel curriculums or both, requiring graduation from a four-year accredited high school for admission, and specifying that all studies, materials, and methods of instruction shall be of collegiate grade." With this concept set forth, the role of the junior college is developed.

Initially presented is the function of democratization and popularization of education to a point two years beyond the usual high-school level. "On the average, at least 60 per cent of the youth in junior colleges either cannot, or do not desire to, spend more than two years in college. . . . Perhaps it is rather safe to say, therefore, that under normal conditions tens of thousands of young people attend junior colleges who never would or could go to a four-year institution. Thus, higher education is being brought closer to an ever increasing number of people."

A second function is indicated as the preservation of the democratic culture and small community by providing higher education within the normal environment of the people living in their native communities. This, it is stated, is in agreement with the thesis proposed by Dr. Baker Brownell, of Northwestern University, that the large university has acted as a disintegrative influence on the small community in that it siphons off the more energetic youth of the community, who never return. "As junior colleges accelerate the process of building terminal vocational curriculums in response to com-

munity needs, integrated with general education for home life and civic responsibility, community life on a larger scale should be enriched and more intelligent leadership provided." Recognition of this function, the author believes, is reflected in the trend toward increased state-wide planning for establishment of junior colleges.

Two more traditional functions of the junior college, the guidance function and the provision of instruction of a high quality, are reviewed briefly and shown to be of much importance because of the present-day pressures being put upon junior-college services. "If pressure is placed on the college to accept a larger number of students than can be properly taught, the responsibility must be laid on the shoulder of the taxpayers or the supporting constituency to provide the means, housing, equipment, and personnel with which to do the job. The junior college has a chance now, as it has never had before, to play a role of dramatic interest."

Speaking of the service rendered youth by junior-college semiprofessional programs, the author notes that nearly one hundred terminal curriculums are now offered, some of which he reviews. "This kind of training, its social usefulness, and its economic rewards may be kept on a plane high enough to reflect honorable light on college halls, studies, shops, and laboratories."

Finally discussed is the junior college's provision of general education to the youth of the nation. The merits of general education have caught the attention of educators in America, and the role of the American junior college in this regard is catching the attention of educators in other nations. Again the author stresses that the function of general education, like all other junior-college services mentioned, must be "of strictly college grade [and] be completed in two years."

GREEN, RAYMOND A. "The Extension of Secondary Education through the Fourteenth Grade," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (April, 1947), 135-39.

Reviews the factors behind the tremendous dislodgment of students from their normal educational pursuits.

"Many factors indicate the permanency of the situation, a very healthy one in America's bid for a well-informed and highly educated democratic citizenry." These factors include a richer economy which enables increasing numbers of youth to continue their education, technological advances which have raised the minimum age for production and profitable employment, and the accompanying postponement of marriage which requires that both young men and young women must be provided for in their late teens and early twenties. It is argued that "more colleges than now exist will have to be developed to cope properly with this phenomena of education."

The enabling legislation enacted by Massachusetts in 1946 affords an example of the way in which this crisis is being met by state school systems. The Massachusetts enactment authorizes any town or city to present a course of study that may extend from one to two years beyond the high school on a junior-college level; the town is also authorized to charge tuition to provide such offerings. The State Department of Education established regulations for the operation and maintenance of courses at the junior-college level. "Such regulations were somewhat similar to those affecting the private junior colleges." Approval by the State Department is based on such standards as the following: "(1) The institution is offering instruction on a level and to a degree of thoroughness distinctly above that of a secondary school. . . . (5) Requirements for the completion of a year are based upon the passing of a minimum of thirty semester-hours of study, exclusive of physical training. . . . (6) The institution proposing to offer two-year courses of study on a collegiate level undertakes (a) to provide the

equivalent of the general education given in the first two years of any standard four-year college, and (b) to give satisfactory evidence that its semiprofessional curriculums are designed to provide reasonably proper instruction to students taking courses of a vocational or semiformal nature. . . . (12) The institution provides for a separation between the course of instruction beyond the regular high-school course and all other courses in the school system."

Complying with this act of legislation and following the approved plan of the State Department, the Newton schools established a junior-college program. To illustrate the problems involved in installing such a program, the author refers to the curriculums, the tuition rates, enrolment statistics, teaching and administrative staff, and facilities provided by the new institution. In conclusion he states: "If I dared to prophesy, I should say that the public junior college will become an accepted institution in New England. . . . The present college crisis has greatly aided its growth. Although starting as an aid to higher education in the present emergency and designed to permit transfer to regular four-year colleges, today's junior college will probably play its greatest postwar role in the field of terminal education."

KOOS, LEONARD V. "A Junior-College Plan for Maryland," *School Review*, LV (June, 1947), 324-38.

Abstracts an investigation made for the state of Maryland to aid authorities in mapping out a plan of junior-college development. The abstract is presented in recognition of the shift of inquiries concerning plans for junior colleges from a local to a state-wide basis. Investigation of the proportion of youth of junior-college age in school, the proportion of high-school graduates continuing their education, and related considerations established the need for junior colleges. Recommendations concerning the locations of the proposed institutions were based on consideration of high-school enrolments, outcomes of a county-by-county canvass, the suitability of local versus regional

junior colleges, special study of conditions in Baltimore City, and attention to the need for junior colleges for Negroes outside Baltimore City. Total costs, state aid, and local taxation were projected in the consideration of the financial problems. The study also looked into the legal authority for establishing and controlling junior colleges in the state of Maryland.

After presenting and interpreting some of the data gathered in each of the foregoing areas, the author summarizes the implications of the entire inquiry in the following formulation of policy for Maryland:

"1. Proportions of youth of junior-college age attending school and of high-school graduates continuing their education have been so small in Maryland that free-tuition opportunities for education at the junior-college level near the homes of prospective students should be provided. Comparison with conditions elsewhere convinces that distance and tuition charges are serious obstacles to continuance of education.

"2. The type of junior college most effective in democratizing, or universalizing, this level of education is this unit as part of the local school system. The county district system in Maryland, together with the relatively compact distribution of the population, and therefore of prospective students, seems almost made to order for establishing this type of institution. . . .

"3. The exceptions to complete application of a policy of localism for white students would be the maintenance of a single junior college for two counties in two instances and, because of lack of feasibility for the present, omission of junior-college units from two other counties, one of which has a state junior college for women. The smaller numbers of prospective Negro students for the time being prevents complete application of a policy of localism for this group of the population. Students from counties without junior colleges, as well as students in counties with junior colleges who live at non-commuting distances from junior colleges, should be subsidized when living away from home.

"4. In order to serve well all youth who will attend, the programs of these junior colleges should include both preparatory and

terminal curriculums. The terminal work should be both general and occupational.

"5. A working minimum enrolment in junior-college years of 175-200 has been assumed for this report. It may require a few to several years to attain this minimum in some of the situations for which it has been indicated.

"6. Projected enrolments of junior colleges indicated in the main body of this report as feasible of establishment are of such a size that all should be developed in association or integration with high-school years. None promises for many years to be large enough to be self-sufficient in respect to plant, facilities, and faculty. . . .

"7. Association or integration of junior-college with high-school years is much more than a matter of expediency and financial economy, as associated junior colleges have educational advantages over separate units, and four-year junior colleges, in turn, are superior to associations. Progress of junior high school reorganization in Maryland in recent years would make the 6-4-4 plan the next natural step in developing the system.

"8. Recommendation for establishment of local public junior colleges extends to Baltimore City, for which at least two or three units for white students and one for Negroes is indicated.

"9. To encourage establishment of junior colleges, they should share in the basic state aid just as do the lower schools. Beyond this, they should participate in equalization funds by being made a part of the state's minimum school program.

"10. A section added in 1945 to Maryland laws on education, authorizing provision for 'continuing education' seems to provide authorization of junior-college development in the county systems. As has just been intimated, further legislation would be necessary to make junior-college work a part of the state's minimum program in order to have expenditures in the counties for it share in the equalization fund.

"11. The same section of the law just referred to appropriately places the State Department of Education in control of 'continuing education.'"

MORRISON, J. CAYCE. "The Place and Function of the Regional School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (April, 1947), 140-47.

Reports New York State's experience in moving toward the establishment of regional schools. Consistent with the new policy of establishing area schools for post-high-school education, the older agricultural and technical institutes of the state, which were established between 1906 and 1916 to supplement but not to extend high-school education, are being broadened to include more emphasis on both technical education and the personal, social, and civic education of youth. This broadened scope of offerings will "enable them to serve their respective regions and to fit into the total pattern of institute education toward which the state is moving."

A great deal of work and a two-year period of intensive research preceded the Regents' announcement of plans for developing new institutes of applied arts and sciences. "The present outcome of that work was legislation in April, 1946, creating five new institutes of applied arts and sciences on a five-year experimental basis."

"In starting the development of a state system of institutes of applied arts and sciences which would include its reorganized state agricultural and technical institutes, New York has made two fundamental decisions. The first is that these shall be state administered and supported institutions; the second is that in their programs 'the streams of general education and vocational-technical education are to be brought together in one course and not as two more-or-less related courses.' . . .

"The more important issue was to determine the real purpose of the institutes. Should they be strictly higher vocational schools or should they provide the first two years of a four-year college or professional-school program? Should they follow the pattern of industrial-technical institutes, or should they aim at providing education for occupational competence in all fields which do not require four or more years of professional education? . . .

"Rightly or wrongly, New York decided to focus the development of these new institutes on the needs of youth who desire to obtain competence for occupations that require more than the skills of trade education but that do not require four or more years of college. . . .

"The development of programs of technical education free and available to all youth will inevitably affect the function and program of the public high school as we have known it. There are two possibilities: one is that the secondary school will take over the major responsibility for trade education. . . . The other possibility is that the establishment of institutes such as New York is starting, free and accessible to all youth, will encourage many youth to complete the general high school and to concentrate on occupational education in the institutes." In view of these possibilities, close relationship between each institute and the high schools of the region served by the institute is recommended.

Through the effort to force the content and method of vocational-technical education and of general education into one stream rather than into two parallel streams, there evolved the proposal for a "co-ordinating conference" of one hour a week as an essential part of every curriculum in every institute. This, the author believes, is a type of co-ordination in curriculum development which holds large promise for education in the thirteenth and fourteenth years.

"In general, all courses were organized under four general headings: (a) applied science and mathematics, (b) applied social sciences, (c) communication arts, (d) personal and community health." The pattern of offerings is designed to foster co-ordination among allied general courses, between general and technical courses, and between institute and community activities.

Since the New York State Commissioner's Committee on Institute Curriculums concluded that trade education is primarily the responsibility of the secondary schools and that such education cannot be provided economically and efficiently in the smaller schools, the problem was to devise a district large enough to do the job that is needed.

"This new intermediate unit would be a supervisory district intermediate between the State Education Department and the local basic taxing and administrative unit."

The final statement of the article is of particular significance: "Whether the programs of technical-general education will be more effective standing alone than in juxtaposition to the conventional junior-college programs is one of the major issues to be studied in the New York experiment."

The Role of the Public Junior College in Illinois: Key Facts and Basic Considerations. Prepared by the Junior-College Committee of the Curriculum Committee of the Illinois Secondary School Principals' Association. Educational Research Circular No. 58. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XLIV, No. 43. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1947. Pp. 43.

Beginning with a brief résumé of the history of the junior college in American education, this report presents the view that "the junior college is designed to meet urgent educational needs and is rapidly developing as an upward extension of secondary education." It further maintains that an adequately supported state system of public junior colleges is urgently needed in Illinois. The imminent sharp increase in the number of war veterans who will attempt to secure education above high-school grade, certain moral commitments by which the University of Illinois is bound, the increased birth rate since 1940, the continuing increase in the number of youth who graduate from high school, the growing proportion of high-school graduates who seek training of a higher grade, and the present inadequate provisions for public junior colleges in Illinois are six lines of evidence pointing to the need for a state system of adequately supported local public junior colleges.

Progressing to the nature of the junior-college system to be instituted, several "cardinal" principles are given. The public junior college should be an upward extension

of secondary education closely integrated and maintaining a high degree of association with the local public high school. The public junior college should serve *all* normal youth who wish to continue their formal education through Grade XIV; should be a tuition-free institution; should provide commonly needed general education for all youth; should provide vocational training in the semiprofessions adequate to qualify all terminal students for effective immediate entrance into the occupational world; should offer college-preparatory courses for college-bound students adequate to qualify them for Junior standing in standard colleges and universities; should provide adequate guidance and other necessary personnel services for all youth; and, finally, should provide whatever adult education of less than university grade the public may desire and should serve as the principal cultural center of the community.

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